

Energy and water tradeoffs in enhancing food security: A Selective International Assessment

Shahbaz Mushtaq^{a,1}, Tek Narayan Maraseni^a, Jerry Maroulis^a, Mohsin Hafeez^b,

^a*Australian Centre for Sustainable Catchments, University of Southern Queensland, Toowoomba, Qld 4350, Australia*

^b*International Centre of Water for Food Security, Charles Sturt University, Wagga Wagga, NSW 2678, Australia*

Abstract

Rice is the major staple food in most Asian countries. However, with rapidly growing populations, sustained high productivity and yields through improving water productivity is critically important. Increasingly complex energy-agriculture relationships require an in-depth understanding of water and energy tradeoffs. This study contributes to energy and food policies by analysing the complex energy, water and economics dynamics across a selection of major rice growing countries.

The results show that tradeoffs exist between yield and energy inputs with high yield attributed to higher levels of energy input. The selected developed countries show higher energy productivity, relative to all other energy inputs, compared to the selected developing countries, owing to enhanced mechanisation, on-farm technology and improved farm management. Among all countries, China has the highest water productivity due to water-saving irrigation practices. These practices offer opportunities for developed and developing countries to increase water productivity at the same time taking advantage of economic and energy benefits of

¹ Correspondence to: Shahbaz Mushtaq. E-mail: mushtaq@usq.edu.au; Phone 61-7-463 2019; Fax 61-7-4631 5581

1
2
3
4 reduced pumping. While greater water productivity will almost certainly be necessary
5
6 to reduce the negative impacts of future water scarcity, it is crucial to bear in mind the
7
8 trade-off between energy and water productivity. Development of efficient water
9
10 irrigation practices such as alternate wetting and drying irrigation practice and their
11
12 large scale implementation across the countries will result in increased rice
13
14 productivity, reduced energy dependency, natural resource sustainability and ensure
15
16 long term food security.
17
18
19
20
21

22 Key words: Water productivity; energy efficiency; benefit cost analysis; developed
23
24 and developing countries; canal irrigation systems; tubewell irrigation system; rainfed
25
26 irrigation system
27
28
29
30
31

32 **1. Introduction**

33
34
35

36 Rice is not only a staple food on a global scale, but also constitutes the major
37
38 economic activity and a key source of employment and income for rural populations.
39
40 Some 75% of the world's annual rice production is harvested from 79 million ha of
41
42 irrigated lowland rice, mainly in Asia where it accounts for 40-46% of the net
43
44 irrigated area of all crops (Dawe, 2005). Since the Green Revolution of the 1960s, the
45
46 combination of new high yielding rice varieties has resulted in the dramatic and
47
48 sustained increase in rice production. This increased productivity and profitability also
49
50 contributed to enhanced food security and less poverty among farmers with irrigated
51
52 land (Dawe, 2000).
53
54
55

56
57 Rice is one of the largest users of the world's developed freshwater resources
58
59 (Tuong and Bouman, 2003). Bouman et al. (2007) estimated that 34-43% of the total
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 world's irrigation water is used in rice production. However, increasing water
5
6 scarcity, maintenance of aging irrigation systems, and increased competition for water
7
8 from other sectors, and the low water productivity of rice relative to other cereal crops
9
10 (Tuong et al. 2005) means that the sustainability of rice is under threat (Rijsberman,
11
12 2006). The strong interdependence between water use in rice production and the
13
14 operation of irrigation facilities for water services highlights the need for improving
15
16 the performance of rice production systems (Bhuyan, 1996) with Rijsberman (2006)
17
18 advocating that water scarcity can be addressed through improved water productivity.
19
20 Increasing water productivity not only requires improved water management practices
21
22 and the conversion of gravity-fed irrigation to pressurised systems, but also the heavy
23
24 reliance on other production inputs such as fertilizers, pesticides, and labour-saving,
25
26 energy-intensive farm machinery. However, modern production practices rely heavily
27
28 upon these inputs that has led to a dramatic increase in fossil fuel use, and raised
29
30 many concerns over sustainable use of energy resources (Deike et al., 2008;
31
32 Hülshbergen et al., 2001). Pimentel et al. (1973; 2003; 2002 a, b), Naylor, (1996) and
33
34 Deike et al. (2008) have warned that dependency on fossil-fuels would be a potential
35
36 threat to the growth and stability of world food production.
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 Issues of declining reliability of water supply as a result of climate change and
44
45 climate variability, increasing costs of water availability such as high groundwater
46
47 pumping costs due to high fuel prices, coupled with rising costs of modern farm
48
49 inputs are influencing farmer's income (Pimentel et al., 2002b; Bhuyan, 2004). For
50
51 example, delivering the 10 Ml of water needed by 1 hectare of irrigated corn from
52
53 surface water sources requires the expenditure of about 880 kWh of fossil fuel (Batty
54
55 and Keller, 1980). In contrast, when groundwater is pumped from a depth of 100 m to
56
57 irrigate the same 1 ha corn crop, the energy cost increases to 28,500 kWh or more
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 than 32 times the cost of surface water (Gleick et al., 2002). Singh et al. (2002) found
5
6 that in an arid zone farming systems in India,, irrigation always consumed the
7
8 majority of on-farm energy. They suggested that the energy-intensive demands of
9
10 various crops should be factored into management decisions when determining the
11
12 most appropriate crops for a given production system.
13
14

15 With declining fossil fuel reserves, increasing farm costs, and the changing
16
17 reliability of water supply, it is important that long term planning for irrigated rice
18
19 recognises that current and future production practices will be challenged. Efficient
20
21 uses of water and energy resources are vital for increased yield from rice production,
22
23 enhanced competitiveness as well as environmental sustainability. The need to
24
25 increase water-dependent rice production and reduce dependency on energy
26
27 resources, demands a better understanding of water and energy use patterns in high-
28
29 input farming systems (Ozkan et al., 2004).
30
31
32

33 This paper contributes to food and energy policies by comparing energy, water
34
35 and economic efficiencies of rice production in selected developing and developed
36
37 countries where rice production is a significant farming enterprise.
38
39
40
41
42

43 **2. Energy and Rice Production**

44
45
46
47

48 Energy is an essential component of any agricultural system, whether the
49
50 source is human, animal or mechanical. All phases of rice production require energy:
51
52 when ploughing, applying fertilizers and pesticides, planting, watering, crop
53
54 cultivation, harvesting, food processing, and transport (Chauhan et al., 2005; Mandal
55
56 et al., 2002). Energy consumption in agriculture is directly related to the development
57
58 of technology and the level of production from a system (Hatirli et al., 2006; Ozkan et
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 al., 2004). Ancient subsistence rice cultivation practices involved low energy inputs
5
6 through scattering of seed resulting in meagre yields. In contrast, modern, market-
7
8 driven rice production practices, require precision techniques involving high energy
9
10 inputs such as large quantities of fossil fuels to achieve substantially improved yields
11
12 (Stout, 1990). In developed countries, where higher levels of mechanisation exist, the
13
14 dependence on fossil fuels is even greater. However, spiralling fuel prices has
15
16 necessitated a more careful and sustainable approach to energy management in
17
18 modern rice cultivation practices.
19
20

21
22 Energy requirements in rice production are divided into two groups: direct and
23
24 indirect (Schnepf, 2004; Pimental et al., 2002a,b). Direct energy is required to
25
26 perform various tasks in crop production processes such as land preparation,
27
28 irrigation, threshing, harvesting and transportation of farm produce. Indirect energy,
29
30 on the other hand, is used in the manufacture, packaging and transport of fertilizers,
31
32 pesticides and farm machinery (Pimental, 1992; Pimental et al., 2002b).
33
34

35
36 Energy inputs can be classified as commercial and non-commercial.
37
38 Commercial energy is produced externally from the farm and includes electricity,
39
40 diesel, fertilizer and other agro-chemicals, machinery and high yielding seed varieties.
41
42 Non-commercial energy is self-generated and includes human labour, animals, farm-
43
44 yard manure (FYM) and home-grown seeds (Stout, 1990).
45
46
47
48
49

50 **3. Methodology**

51 **Energy Use Efficiency**

52
53 Each agricultural input and output has its own energy values. For this study,
54
55 we consider all farm inputs including machinery, seeds, agrochemicals (fertilisers,
56
57 insecticides, herbicides, fungicides and molluscicides), fuels, farm yard manure, and
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 human and animal labours. Similarly, we consider energy outputs from rice and straw.
5
6 We collected the data in terms of physical units, which were then converted into
7
8 energy units for the analysis using standard energy coefficients. Analysis of energy
9
10 coefficients are based on energy equivalents available in the literature (Thakur and
11
12 Makan, 1997; Mandal et al., 2002; Canakci et al., 2005; Hatirli et al., 2006) and their
13
14 equivalents are presented in Table 1. The energy values used in this paper are the
15
16 dietary energy value of agricultural output relative to the fossil energy expended to
17
18 obtain it (Bonny, 1993). Finally, energy from all agricultural inputs and outputs was
19
20 summed to obtain the total energy input and output.
21
22

23
24 The energy use efficiencies for rice cultivation were estimated then by the
25
26 following ratios:
27
28
29
30

31
32
$$\text{Energy ratio} = \frac{\text{Total energy output (kWh)}}{\text{Total energy input (kWh)}} \quad (1)$$

33
34
35
36

37
38
$$\text{Specific energy} = \frac{\text{Total energy input (kWh)}}{\text{Output of grain yield (kg)}} \quad (2)$$

39
40
41
42

43
44
$$\text{Energy productivity} = \frac{\text{Grain yield (kg)}}{\text{Total energy input (kWh)}} \quad (3)$$

45
46
47

48 where, total energy input is the sum of all individual energy inputs (in kWh) such as
49
50 human energy, tractor energy, energy through fertilizer, chemicals, seed, farm yards
51
52 manure and irrigation. Similarly, the total energy output includes the energy obtained
53
54 from grain production and by-products such as straw.
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Economic Efficiency

Economic efficiency occurs when scarce resources are allocated and used such that net returns (gross returns minus costs) are maximised (Barker et al., 2003). The net return of rice production is calculated as gross returns minus the cost of all variable inputs, which includes the cost of irrigation, seed, fertilizer, chemical, and labour. Water productivity ($\$/m^3$) measured in 'economic' terms, is the gross return divided by the amount of the irrigation water supplied to rice.

The economic efficiency of rice production was estimated as follows:

$$\text{Water productivity (Economics)} = \frac{\text{Gross returns (\$)}}{\text{Volume of applied irrigation water (m}^3\text{)}} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Benefit Cost Ratio (BCR)} = \frac{\text{Gross returns (\$)}}{\text{Total costs (\$)}} \quad (5)$$

where, the BCR is the sum of the benefits (\$) divided by the sum of the costs (\$). If the ratio is greater than one, then the project is viable.

Water Use Efficiency

Water productivity (WP) is one of the key indicators of water use efficiency (Molden, 1997; Molden and Sakthivadivel, 1999). In this study, we define WP as the ratio of yield (kg) to the volume of applied irrigation water supplied (m^3).

$$\text{Water productivity (kg/m}^3\text{)} = \frac{\text{Grain yield (kg)}}{\text{Volume of applied irrigation water (m}^3\text{)}} \quad (6)$$

1
2
3
4 3.1 Data collection
5

6 The study used a vast dataset obtained for the 2001-2005 period from various
7 projects in the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI), Philippines. Data for the
8 USA was obtained from the University of Arkansas (2006) and AgCenter Research
9 and Extension, Louisiana State University (2003). Data used in this study contained
10 specific information such as rice production information at the plot level including
11 machine, fuel, seed, fertiliser, chemicals, water use, and labour use.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20

21 The selected countries—6 developing and 2 developed countries—are major rice
22 producers and consumers. Data from the selected developing countries includes
23 Liuyuankou Irrigation System in Yellow River Basin, North West China; Rechna
24 Doab in Punjab, Pakistan; Upper Pampanga River Integrated Irrigation System in
25 Central Luzon, Philippines; Semarang and Pati Districts in Central Java, Indonesia;
26 Banke district in Terai, Nepal; Myitthar Township in Mandalay Division, Myanmar.
27 The data from the selected developed countries includes Coleambally Irrigation Area
28 (CIA) in NSW, Australia and Arkansas in USA (Appendix 1).
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 Among the 8 countries used in this study, China, on average over the past decade,
40 has the highest land area dedicated to rice production, followed by Indonesia and
41 Myanmar; with developing countries dominating the total proportion of land area
42 devoted to rice production (97.5%) (Table 2).
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

4. Results

Crop Productivity

Despite being the staple food for most Asian countries, rice yields remain low compared to other cereal crops. However, countries such as China and the Philippines have managed to achieve significant yield increases, due to substantial usage of fertilisers and high yielding varieties of rice. Figure 1 presents a brief comparison of rice yields from the selected developing and developed countries used in this study. The details of total input used in rice production are given in Table 3. Statistically, there is little difference in rice yield using either canal or tubewell irrigation. However, irrigated rice yield is almost 1.8 times higher than rainfed yield. Australia has the highest irrigated rice yield (9,500 kg/ha) while Pakistan has the lowest yield (2,491 kg/ha).

Energy Productivity

The energy-agriculture relationship is becoming increasingly important as the growing reliance on fossil fuels continues unabated with continued intensification of cropping systems such as in rice production. Tradeoffs exist between yield and energy inputs (Figure 2) as energy consumption is directly related to the development of technology and the level of production.

The total energy inputs and outputs for rice under various irrigation systems in a selection of developing and developed countries is shown in Figure 3, with the specific details of the energy inputs and outputs being presented in Table 4. Overall, indirect energy in the form of fertilisers and chemicals constitutes a major portion of total energy input. However, in the case of tubewell irrigation, direct energy was the

1
2
3
4 major contributor to total energy inputs (Table 4). The average energy input use
5
6 (7,112 kWh) in the selected developed countries is 1.2 times greater than the energy
7
8 inputs (6,047 kWh) in the selected developing countries. This is due to high energy
9
10 inputs such as chemical fertiliser, pesticides and insecticides. Similarly, the energy
11
12 outputs and thus energy productivity in the selected developed countries are 1.82
13
14 times higher than the developing countries indicating that energy productivity, relative
15
16 to all energy inputs, is higher in the selected developed countries than the selected
17
18 developing countries.
19
20
21

22
23 Irrigation (both canal and tubewell) requires significant expenditure of fossil
24
25 energy both for pumping and for delivering water to crops. On average, the amount of
26
27 energy consumed in irrigated rice production (6,993 KWh) is two times higher than
28
29 rainfed rice (3,531 kWh), while tubewell irrigation used 25% more energy than canal
30
31 irrigation. Hodges et al. (1994) estimated that 15% of the annual total energy
32
33 expended for all crop production is used to pump irrigation water. The large quantities
34
35 of energy required to pump irrigation water are significant considerations both from
36
37 the standpoint of energy and water resource management.
38
39
40

41
42 The energy efficiency indicators – energy ratio, specific energy, and energy
43
44 productivity – varied with rice irrigation system (Figure 4), and selected developed
45
46 and developing countries (Figure 5). The average of energy ratio (9.5) and energy
47
48 productivity (1.17) of rainfed rice is significantly higher than the average energy ratio
49
50 (5.7) and energy productivity (0.6) of tubewell (Figure 5). This is mainly due to
51
52 higher energy inputs used in pumping. However, there was not much difference in
53
54 average energy ratio and energy productivity between rainfed and canal irrigation
55
56 (Figure 5). Furthermore, the tubewell irrigation of rice shows high average specific
57
58 energy (1.8) as compared with canal irrigation (1.2) and rainfed rice (1.0).
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 The comparison between the selected developed and developing countries
5
6 indicates higher energy ratios and higher energy productivity in developed countries
7
8 (Figure 5). This reflects changes in technology and farm management that
9
10 economised on energy, the adoption of conservation tillage; a switch to larger,
11
12 multifunctional machines; the transition to more efficient methods of irrigation and
13
14 less energy-intensive methods of fertilizer production. However, the specific energy
15
16 for rice production using tubewell and canal irrigation was higher in developing
17
18 countries than the selected developed countries (Figure 5).
19
20
21

22
23 Despite these efficiency gains, energy use in the selected developed countries
24
25 is still high. This is because increased farm mechanisation in developed countries
26
27 requires significant energy usage at particular stages of the rice production cycle to
28
29 achieve optimum yields.
30
31

32 33 **Economic Efficiency in Rice Production** 34

35
36 Economic efficiency not only guides investment about what crops to grow but
37
38 also the decisions about the quantity of input needed. The net return per ha and benefit
39
40 costs analysis (BCA) of rice production are shown in Figure 6 and 7 with details of
41
42 the input and output costs given in Table 5. Net return varied significantly between
43
44 countries. Overall, rice production shows positive net returns for all selected countries
45
46 (Table 5 and Figure 6). Similarly, the BCA of all the selected countries was greater
47
48 than one, indicating rice profitability: Australia has the highest net returns (\$1,397/ha)
49
50 while Myanmar has the lowest (\$89/ha).
51
52

53
54 Rice grown using canal irrigation (\$490/ha) shows 11% higher net returns
55
56 when compared with tubewell (\$442/ha), and 182% higher returns when compared
57
58 with rainfed rice (\$174/ha). Similarly, the selected developed countries, on average,
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 realised over 200% higher economic returns (\$1029/ha) compared to the selected
5
6 developing countries (\$317/ha).
7

8
9 The water productivity of rice when measured in economic terms did not show
10
11 a significant difference between the countries, and between the given rice irrigation
12
13 system (Figure 8). However, Australia has the highest water productivity economics
14
15 (0.2 kg/m³), despite the relatively high water usage in a climate of highly variable
16
17 water regimes, resulted in higher yields, while the lowest water productivity
18
19 economics (0.1 kg/m³) was found in Nepal (Figure 8).
20
21
22
23

24 **Water productivity**

25
26 Water productivity of rice between the selected countries is shown in Figure 9.
27
28 China has the highest water productivity both for canal (1.21 kg/m³) and tubewell
29
30 (1.32 kg/m³) irrigation. This is because of the adoption of water-saving irrigation
31
32 practices, in particular alternate wetting and drying (AWD) (Bouman et al., 2007;
33
34 Cabangon et al., 2004). The basic feature of the AWD method is to irrigate so that the
35
36 soil alternates between periods of standing water and damp or dry soil conditions from
37
38 30 days after crop establishment up to harvesting (Moya et al., 2004). In general, rice
39
40 grown on tubewell has higher water productivity (0.95 kg/m³) than canal irrigation
41
42 (0.84 kg/m³), due to more timely and flexible water supply, which not only helped in
43
44 reducing the irrigation water quantity but also increased yield (Figure 9).
45
46
47
48

49
50 The high water productivity of rice in China, attributed to different water-
51
52 saving irrigation practices, especially AWD irrigation practices, highlight the
53
54 important opportunities available for both developed and developing countries to
55
56 increase water productivity whilst reducing water and energy inputs. Studies have
57
58 shown (Mushtaq et al., 2006; Moya et al., 2004; Li and Barker, 2004; Belder et al.,
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 2004) that AWD irrigation practices save 5-30% of water without adversely affecting
5
6 yields. The water saving would result in decreased pumping costs, reduced energy
7
8 inputs and ultimately an increase in profits.
9

10 11 12 13 14 **5. Discussion** 15 16 17

18
19 Global rice production has more than doubled during the past 50 years.
20
21 However, gains in yield have come at a considerable cost in terms of increased input
22
23 use and energy consumption, as well as the depreciation of natural resource stocks.
24
25 Rice is generally grown using the transplanting of seedlings under puddled field
26
27 conditions. It requires huge amounts of input energy for the growing of seedlings,
28
29 transplanting, puddling, and irrigation. Advances in agricultural technologies have
30
31 seen rice yield and the use of energy resources markedly increase. Thus, the energy-
32
33 yield relationship is becoming more and more important with enhanced mechanisation
34
35 and agricultural intensification: considered to be the only means of raising agricultural
36
37 output in land-limited situations.
38
39
40

41
42 Results show tradeoffs between yield and energy input uses with higher yields
43
44 attributed to higher levels of input energy. Inputs such as fuel, electricity, machinery,
45
46 seed, fertilizer and chemical take a significant share of the energy supplies needed in
47
48 modern agricultural production systems, especially in rice production. The selected
49
50 developed countries used in this study have higher energy productivity relative to all
51
52 energy inputs compared to the selected developing counties, due to improvements in
53
54 farm technology and farm management. China has the highest water productivity
55
56 because of water-saving irrigation practices. Water saving irrigation practices offer
57
58 opportunities for developed and developing countries to increase water productivity
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 while at the same time capturing the economic and energy benefits of reduced
5
6 pumping.
7

8
9 While greater water productivity will almost certainly be necessary to reduce
10 the negative impacts of future water scarcity, it is important to keep in mind the
11 distinction between energy and water productivity tradeoffs. Increasing water
12 productivity in some instances does not necessarily result in increased benefits to
13 society. For example, interventions may raise water productivity only at the expense
14 of using other scarce resources and increasing greenhouse gases such as fossil fuels,
15 with the net effect being a reduction in economic efficiency.
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23

24
25 In the future policy planning, energy dependency will not only influence the
26 overall economics of rice crop but also the selection of suitable irrigated crop
27 varieties. Development of efficient water management practices such as alternate
28 wetting and drying irrigation practices and its large scale implementation across the
29 selected countries would result in increased rice productivity, reduced energy
30 dependency, enhanced natural resource sustainability and ensuring future food
31 security.
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 **Acknowledgements**

43
44 We would like to extend our thanks to the International Rice Research
45 Institute, Philippines for supplying invaluable rice production data; and to the
46 Australian Centre for Sustainable Catchments, University of Southern Queensland,
47 Australia for logistical and other support.
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Reference

- AgCenter Research and Extension. 2003. Projected Costs And Returns Rice, Louisiana. A.E.A. Information Series No. 210. Louisiana State University. Baton Rouge, LA.
- Barker, R., Dawe, D, Inocencio, A., 2003. Economics of Water Productivity in Managing Water for Agriculture, Water Productivity in Agriculture: Limits and Opportunities for Improvement, Kijne JW, R Barker and DJ Molden (eds.), Comprehensive Assessment of Water Management in Agriculture Series, No. 1, 19-35, CABI Publishing, Wallingford UK and Cambridge MA USA
- Batty, J. C. and Keller, J. 1980. Energy requirements for irrigation. In Handbook Of Energy Utilization in Agriculture. D. Pimentel (ed.), Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press. pp. 35-44.
- Belder, P., Bouman, B.A.M., Spiertz, J.H.J., Cabangon, R., Guoan, L., Quilang, E.J.P., Li, Y., Tuong, T.P., 2004. Effect of water and nitrogen management on water use and yield of irrigated rice. *Agric. Water Manage.* 65:193-210.
- Bhuyan S. I., 2004. Modernization of Rice Irrigation Systems: Implications for Diversified Cropping, Paper presented at the FAO Expert Consultation on Modernization of Irrigation Schemes. FAO, Bangkok, 26-29 November 1996.
- Bonny, S. 1993. Is agriculture using more and more energy? A French Case Study. *Agricultural System* 43: 51-66.
- Bouman, B.A.M., Lampayan, R.M., Tuong, T.P., 2007. Water management in irrigated rice: coping with water scarcity. Los Baños (Philippines): International Rice Research Institute. 54 pp.
- Cabangon, R.J., Tuong, T.P., Castillo, E.G., Bao, L.X., Lu, G., Wang, G.H., Cui, L., Bouman, B.A.M., Li, Y., Chen, C., Wang, J., 2004. Effect of irrigation method and N-fertilizer management on rice yield, water productivity and nutrient-use efficiencies in typical lowland rice conditions in China. *Rice Field Water Environ.* 2:195-206.

- 1
2
3
4 Canakci, M, Topakci, M, Akinci, I, Ozmerzi, A., 2005 Energy use pattern of some
5 field crops and vegetable production: Case study for Antalya Region, Turkey
6 Energy conservation & Mgt; 46: 655-66.
7
8
9 Chauhan, N. S., Mohapatra, P. K.J., Pandey, P. K., 2005. Improving energy
10 productivity in paddy production through benchmarking—An application of
11 data envelopment analysis. Energy Conversion and Management 47 (2006)
12 1063–1085
13
14
15 Dawe, D. 2000. The contribution of rice research to poverty alleviation. In
16 ‘Redesigning Rice Photosynthesis to Increase Yield’ (Eds. J.E. Sheehy, P.L.
17 Mitchell and B. Hardy), 3-12, (IRRI, Los Baños, Laguna and Amsterdam).
18
19 Dawe, D. 2005. Water productivity in rice-based systems in Asia – variability in
20 space and time. Plant Production Science Vol: 8, issue: 3 page: 221-230
21
22
23 Deike, S., Pallutt, B., Christen, O., 2008. Investigations on the energy efficiency of
24 organic and integrated farming with specific emphasis on pesticide use
25 intensity. Europ. J. Agronomy 28 461–470
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
- FAO 2000. The Energy and Agriculture Nexus, FAO, Rome.
- Gleick, P.H., Wolff, E.L. and Chalecki, R.R. 2002. The New Economy of Water: The Risks and Benefits of Globalization and Privatization of Freshwater. Oakland, CA: Pacific Institute for Studies in Development, Environment, and Security. 48 pp.
- Graham, P. W., and Williams, D. J. (2005). Optimal technological choices in meeting Australian energy policy goals. Energy Economics 25 (2003) 691–712
- Hatirli, S., Ozkan, B., & Fert, C. (2006). Energy inputs and crop yield relationship in greenhouse tomato production. Renewable Energy, 31, 427-438.
- Hodges, A.W., Lynne, G.D., Rahmani, M. and Casey, C.F. 1994. Adoption of Energy and Water-Conserving Irrigation Technologies in Florida. Fact Sheet EES 103, Florida Cooperative Extension Service, Institute of Food and Agricultural Sciences, University of Florida.
- Hülsbergen, K. -J., Feil, B., Biermann, S., Rathke, G.-W., Kalk, W.-D., Diepenbrock, W. (2001). A method of energy balancing in crop production and its application in a long-term fertilizer trial. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment 86 (2001) 303–321
- Khush, G. S., 1995. Modern varieties: Their real contribution to food supplies and equity. GeoJournal 35, 275–284.

- 1
2
3
4 Li, Y., Barker. R. Increasing water productivity for paddy irrigation in China. *Paddy*
5 *Water Environ* (2004) 2:187–193
6
7 Mandal K.G.1, Saha K.P.; Ghosh P.K., Hati K.M., Bandyopadhyay, K.K. 2002.
8 *Bioenergy and Economic analysis of Soybean-based crop production system*
9 *in central India. Biomass and Bioenergy* 23:337-45.
10
11 Molden, D., 1997. Accounting for water use and productivity. SWIM Paper 1.
12 *International Water Management Institute, Colombo, Sri Lanka.*
13
14 Molden, D., Sakthivadivel, R., 1999. Water accounting to assess use and productivity
15 *of water. Water Resources Development* 15, 55–71.
16
17 Moya, P., Hong, L. Dawe, D., Chen, C., 2004. The impact of on-farm water saving
18 *irrigation techniques on rice productivity and profitability in Zhanghe*
19 *Irrigation System, Hubei, China. Paddy Water Environ* (2004) 2:207–215
20
21 Mushtaq, S., Dawe, D., Hong, Lin., Moya, P. 2006. An assessment of the role of
22 *ponds in the adoption of water-saving irrigation practices in the Zhanghe*
23 *Irrigation System, China. Agric. Water Manage.* 83:100-110.
24
25 Naylor, L. R.,1996. Energy and Resource Constraints on Intensive Agricultural
26 *Production. Annu. Rev. Energy Environ.* 1996. 21:99–123
27
28 Ozkan, B., Akcaoz, H., Fert, C., 2004. Energy input-output analysis in Turkish
29 *agriculture. Renewable Energy*, 29, 39-51.
30
31 Pimentel, D., Hurd, L.E., Bellotti, A.C., Forester, M.J., Oka, I.N. (1973). Food
32 *production and energy crisis. Science* 182:443–49
33
34 Pimentel, D. Pimentel, M. 2003. World population, food, natural resources, and
35 *survival. World Futures* 59: 145-167
36
37 Pimentel, D., Herz, M., Whitecraft, M., Zimmerman, M., Allen, R., Becker, K.,
38 *Evans, J., Hussan, B., Sarsfield, R., Grosfeld A., and Seidel, T. 2002a.*
39 *Renewable energy: current and potential issues. BioScience* 52(12): 1111-
40 1120.
41
42 Pimentel, D., Doughty, R., Carothers, C., Lamberson, S., Bora, N. Lee, K. 2002b.
43 *Energy inputs in crop production: comparison of developed and developing*
44 *countries. In Food Security & Environmental Quality in the Developing*
45 *World. L. Lal, D. Hansen, N. Uphoff and S. Slack (eds.), Boca Raton, FL:*
46 *CRC Press. pp. 129-151.*
47
48 Pimental, D., 1992. Energy inputs in production agriculture. *Fluck RC (Editor),*
49 *Energy in Farm Production . Amsterdam: Elsevier.*
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4 Rijsberman, F. R., 2006. Water scarcity: Fact or fiction? *Agricultural Water*
5 *Management*. 80, 5–22.
6
7 Schnepf, R. 2004. *Energy Use in Agriculture: Background and Issues*. Congressional
8 Research Service (CRS) Report for Congress. CRS Report Number :
9 RL32677. Washington D.C., USA
10
11 Selim, A.H., Burhan, O., Cemal, F., 2006. Energy inputs and crop yield relationship
12 in greenhouse tomato production: *Renewable Energy* 2006; 31(4): 427-438.
13
14 Singh H, Mishra D, & Nahar N.M. 2002. Energy use pattern in production agriculture
15 of a typical village in arid zone, India - part I. *Energy Conversion and*
16 *Management*, 43, 2275-2286.
17
18 Stout, B.A.1990. *Handbook of Energy for World Agriculture* London: Elsevier
19 Applied Science. London/New York
20
21 Thakur C.L., Makan, G.R., 1997. Energy Scenarios of Madhya Pradesh (India)
22 Agriculture and Future Requirements. *Energy Conservation and Mgt* 38 (3)
23 237-244.
24
25 Tuong, T. P., Bouman, B. A. M., 2003. Rice production in water scarce environments.
26 In “Water Productivity in Agriculture: Limits and Opportunities for
27 Improvement” (J. W. Kijne, R. Barker, and D. Molden, Eds.), pp. 53–67.
28 CABI Publishing, Wallingford, UK.
29
30 Tuong, T.P., Bouman, B.A.M., Mortimer, M., 2005. More rice, less water: integrated
31 approaches for increasing water productivity in irrigated rice-based systems in
32 Asia. *Plant Prod. Sci.* 8:231-241.
33
34 University of Arkansas (2006). *Rice Production in Arkansas*. Crop Production
35 Budgets for Farm Planning 2006/07, Division of Agriculture, University of
36 Arkansas, accessed 18 June 2007 from
37 <http://www.aragriculture.org/crops/rice/budgets/2008/default.htm>
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49 Yilmaz, I., Akcaoz, H., Ozkan, B. 2005. An analysis of energy use and output costs
50 for cotton production in Turkey, *Renewable Energy* Volume 30, Issue 2, Pages
51 145-155.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 Appendix 1: Characteristics of the Study Locations
5
6

- 7 • *China*: Data collected from a total of 45 farmers, out of which 12 were using
8 tubewell irrigation, during 2002 in the Liuyuankou Irrigation System (LIS),
9 located in the Yellow River Basin, North West China. Surface water from the
10 Yellow River and local groundwater are two key sources of irrigation water in
11 the irrigation systems in LIS. The LIS lies in a semi-arid climatic zone with a
12 highly variable annual rainfall of 530 mm. The annual average temperature is
13 14°C and annual evapotranspiration is 1,150 mm.
14
15
- 16 • *Australia*: Data collected from 18 farmers using canal irrigation during
17 2005/06 in the Coleambally Irrigation Area (CIA), New South Wales,
18 Australia, which is located south of the Murrumbidgee River. The CIA was
19 developed during the 1960's to make use of water diverted westward as a
20 result of the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme. Water is diverted to
21 the CIA from the Murrumbidgee River at Gogelderie Weir. The CIA lies in a
22 semi-arid climatic zone with a highly variable annual rainfall of 530 mm. The
23 annual average temperature is 20°C and annual evapotranspiration is 1,000
24 mm.
25
26
- 27 • *Pakistan*: Data collected from a total of 188 farmers during 2001/02, out of
28 which 53 farmers using tubewell for irrigation, were located in Sheikhpura,
29 Mangtanwala and Dhauhar sub-divisions in Rechna Doab (RD), Pakistan. RD
30 utilise surface and groundwater for irrigation, with groundwater being the
31 dominant source. The RD area lies in a semi-arid climatic zone with a highly
32 variable annual rainfall of 530 mm. The annual average temperature is 21°C
33 and annual evapotranspiration is 1,200 mm.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
- *Philippines*: Data collected from a total of 150 farmers during the 2002 dry season, out of which 50 farmers were using tubewell for rice irrigation, in the Upper Pampanga River Integrated Irrigation System (UPRIIS), Central Luzon, Philippines. The UPRIIS covers an area of 102,000 ha and produces an average of 63 million tonnes of rice per annum. The climate in the UPRIIS is characterized by two pronounced seasons: dry from November to April with an average rainfall of 193 mm; wet from May to October with an average rainfall of 1654 mm. The average temperature ranges from 24°C to 3°C and evaporation varies from 665 mm to 503 mm depending on the time of year.
 - *Indonesia*: Data was collected from 85 farmers Semarang and Pati Districts in Central Java, Indonesia during 2002/04 for both wet and dry seasons. Semarang and Pati has a tropical climate with two seasons: the wet season is from November to April influenced by the monsoon; while the dry season is from May to October influenced by the eastern monsoon. Annual rainfall is between 2,065–2,460 mm with maximum rainfall occurring in the months of December and January. The average temperature ranges from 28.0°C to 34.3°C.
 - *Nepal*: Data was collected from 160 farmers during 2002/03 from the Banke district in Terai, Nepal. The total area of the Banke district is about 278,674 ha, in which rice is the dominant crop in summer. Heavy monsoon rains begin in June and end in September; this monsoon comprised about 87% of the year's total precipitation. The average annual rainfall of Banke District was 1,445 mm. Minimum mean monthly temperature was 19.0°C and the maximum mean monthly temperature was 31.2°.

- 1
2
3
4 • *Myanmar*: Data collected from 105 rice farmers during 2002/03, revealed that
5
6 30 farmers grew rainfed rice, from the Kingda Dam irrigated area in Mandalay
7
8 Division, in particular Myitthar Township, Myanmar. Myitthar occupies
9
10 87,725 acres or 44.9% of the total Kingda Dam irrigated area. The average
11
12 rainfall is 993 mm. Minimum mean monthly temperature is 21°C and the
13
14 maximum mean monthly temperature is 34°C. Rice is the major crop grown
15
16 during the wet season in Myitthar Township.
17
18
- 19
20 • *USA*: Data on the Northeast Louisiana Rice Area was made available from the
21
22 University of Arkansas and Louisiana State University. The Northeast
23
24 Louisiana Rice Area is characterized by flat to slightly rolling topography.
25
26 Northeast Louisiana has a mixed-humid climate with more than 550 mm of
27
28 precipitation. The average monthly temperature drops below 7°C in winter.
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

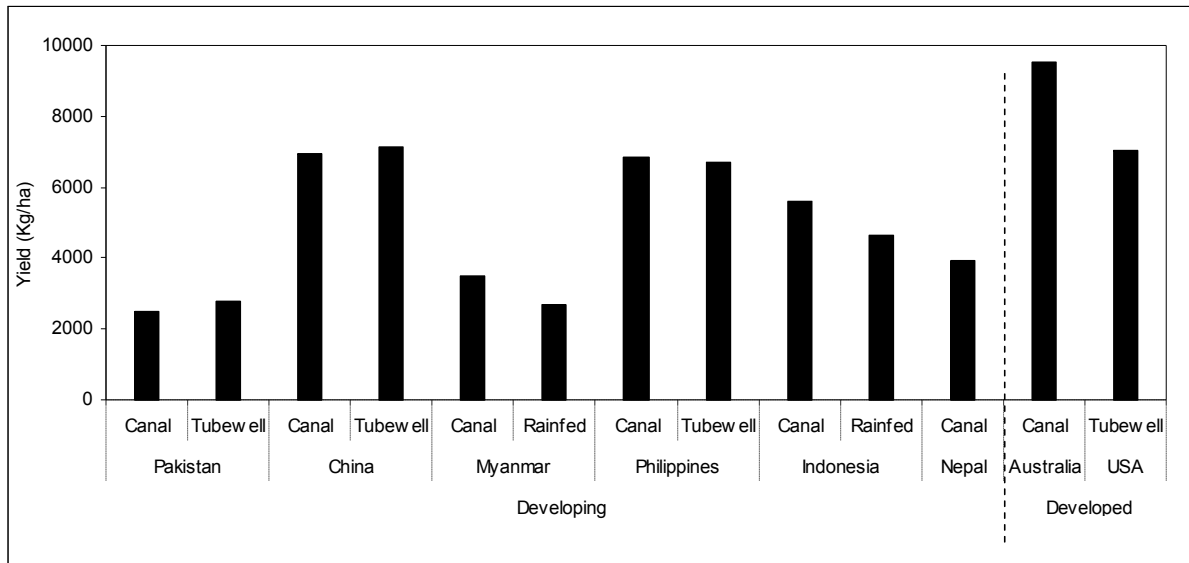


Figure 1 Comparison of rice yields in selected developing and developed countries using canal, tubewell and rainfed production systems.

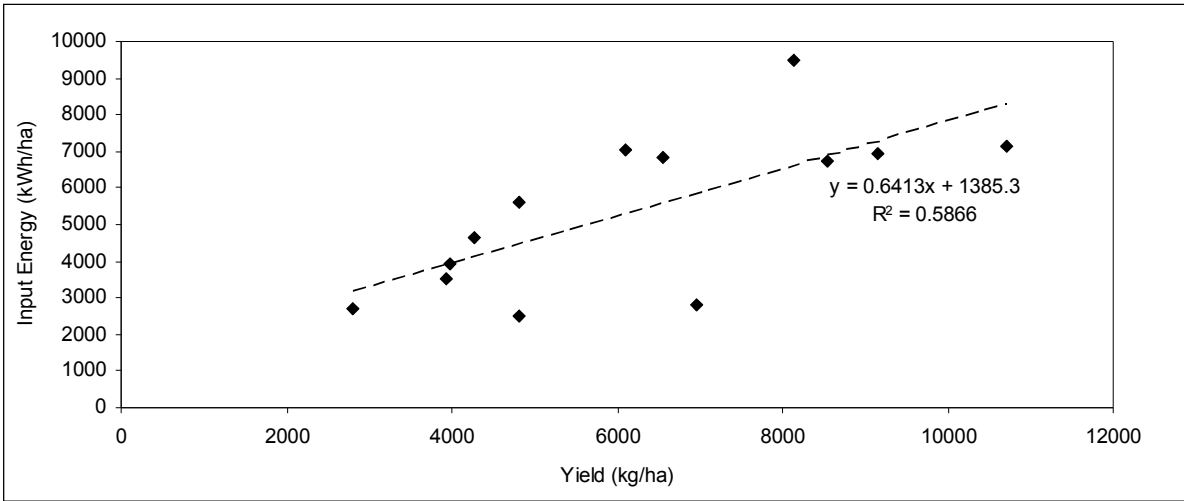


Figure 2 Tradeoffs between rice yield and energy inputs for the selected developing and developed countries.

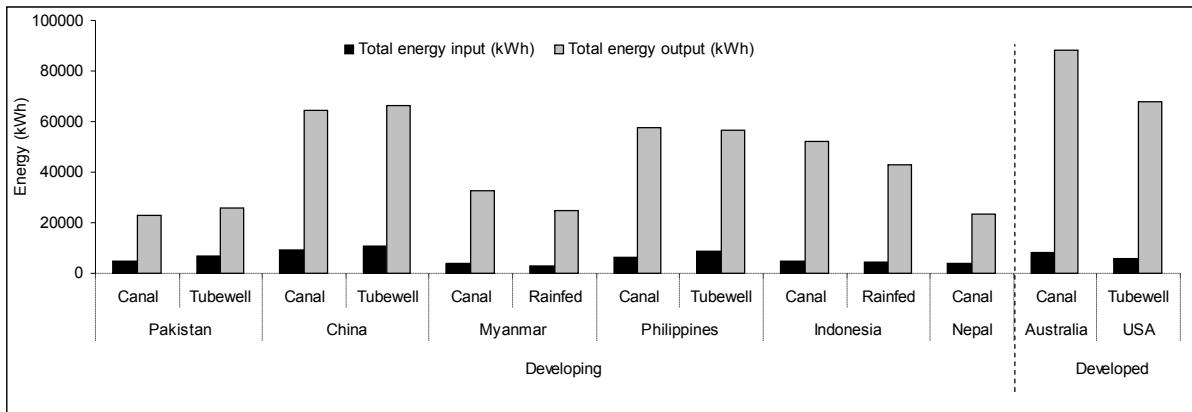


Figure 3 Total energy input and output of rice under different irrigation system for the selected developing and developed countries.

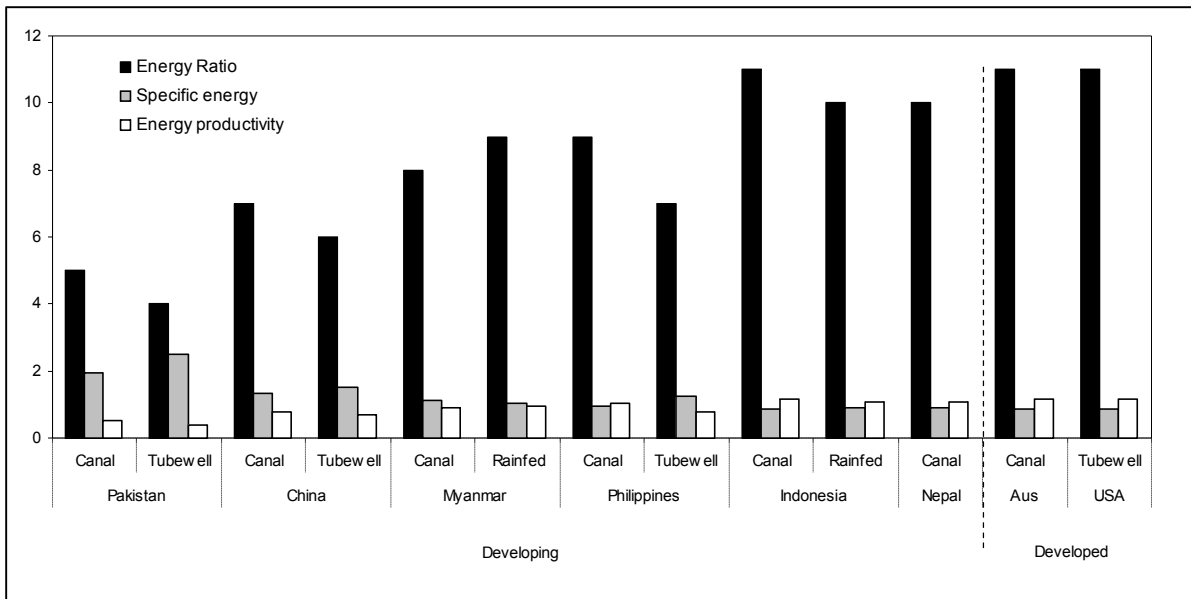


Figure 4 Energy ratio, specific energy, and energy productivity of rice production in canal, tubewell and rainfed irrigation systems for the selected developing and developed countries.

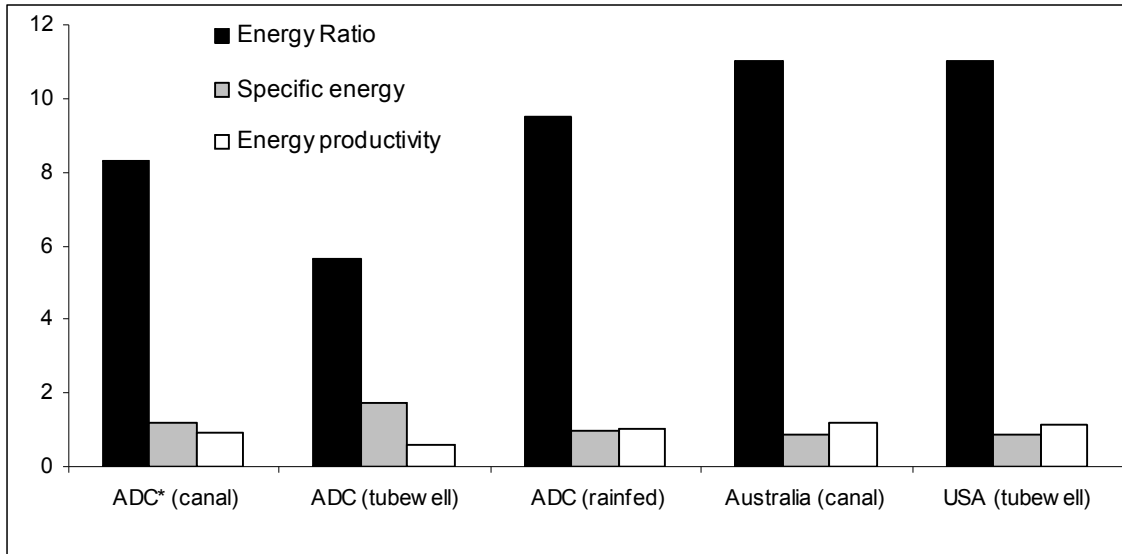


Figure 5 Average energy ratio, specific energy and energy productivity for the selected developing countries and developed countries. * ADC = average of developing countries

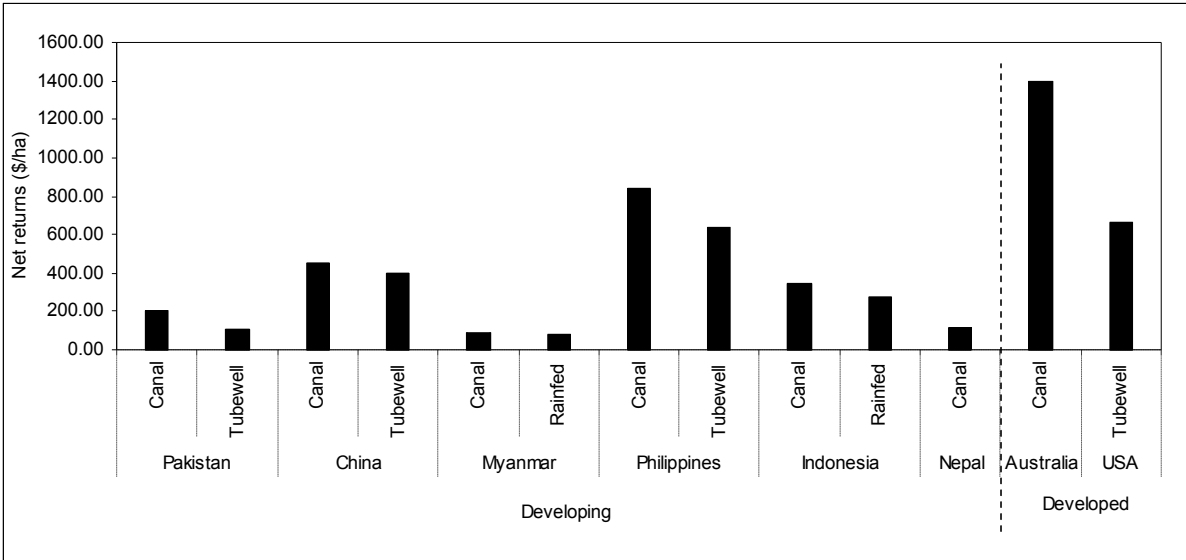


Figure 6 Net return of rice production from different irrigation systems for the selected developed and developing countries

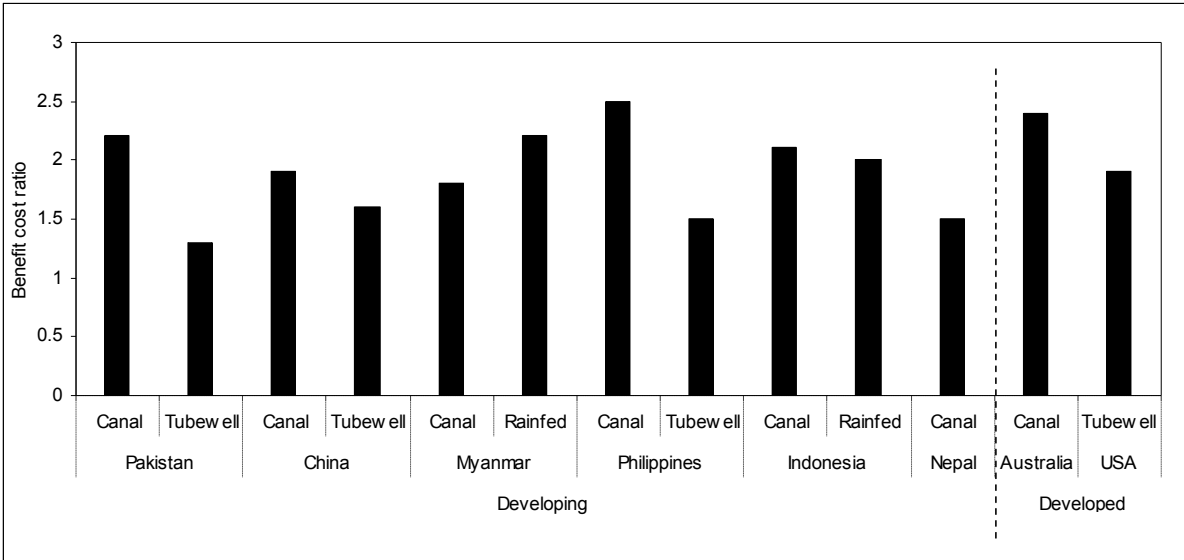


Figure 7 Benefit cost ratio of rice production from different irrigation systems for the selected developed and developing countries.

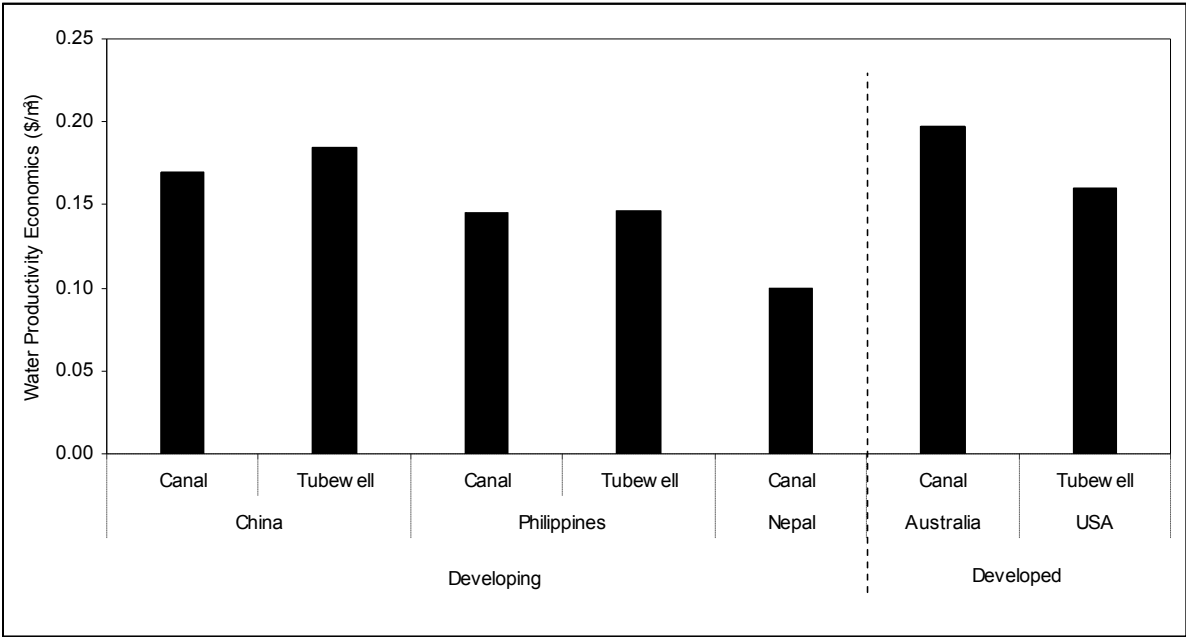


Figure 8 Water productivity measured in economic terms for the selected developing and developed countries.

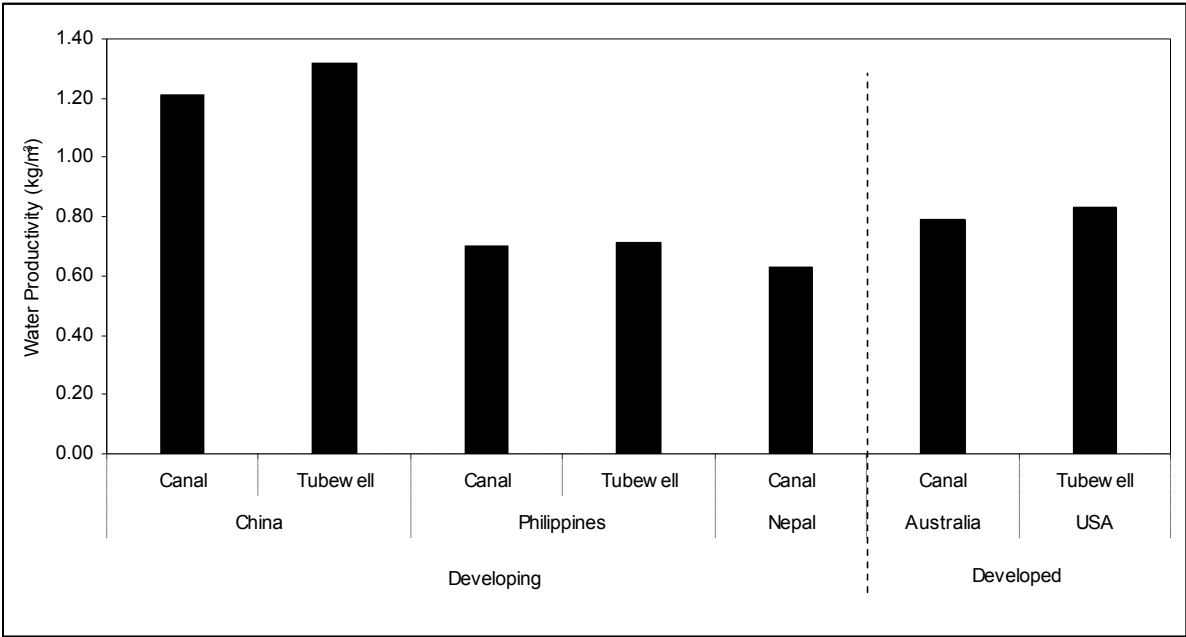


Figure 9 Water productivity of rice for the selected developed and developing countries

Table 1 Energy equivalence of inputs and outputs in rice production.

Operation	Unit	Energy equivalent (KWh)	References
Machinery (Tractor for land preparation)	hr	17.42	Mandal et al. (2002); Yilmaz et al. (2004)
Diesel	l	15.67	Mandal et al. (2002); Yilmaz et al. (2004); Hatirli et al. (2006)
Seed	kg	4.08	Mandal et al. (2002); Selim et al. (2006)
Fertilizer			
N	kg	16.83	Mandal et al. (2002)
P	kg	3.08	Mandal et al. (2002)
K	kg	1.86	Mandal et al. (2002)
Chemicals			
Insecticides	l	55.5	FAO2000
Herbicides	l	66.7	FAO2000
Molluscicides	l	28.1	Hatirli et al. (2006)
Fungicides	l	17.2	FAO2000
Farm yard manure	kg	0.07	Mandal et al. (2002)
Labour	day	4.32	Mandal et al. (2002); Yilmaz et al. (2005)
Animal labour	hr	1.4	Ozkan et al. (2004)
Yield	kg	4.08	Mandal et al. (2002); Selim et al. (2006)
Straw	kg	3.47	Mandal et al. (2002)

Table 2. Rice/paddy harvested area and percentage of rice to the total cereal area for the selected developing and developed countries.

Countries	Average Area (1997-2006) (000' ha)	Average Percentage (1997-2006) of rice area to the total cereal area
Australia	110	1
USA	1,293	2
China	29,718	35
Indonesia	11,625	77
Myanmar	6,377	91
Nepal	1,539	46
Pakistan	2,415	19
Philippines	3,953	61

Source: FAO (2007)

Table 3 Physical total inputs and outputs for rice production under different irrigation system per hectare for the selected developing and developed countries.

Operation	Unit	Pakistan		China		Philippines		Australia	Indonesia		Nepal	USA		Myanmar	
		Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Canal	Rainfed	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Rainfed	
Land prep (Tractor)	hr	5	5	7	8	8	8	2	5	4	3	5	5	4	
Diesel	l	115	219	161	244	184	298	46	115	92	69	230	115	92	
Seed	kg	45	48	102	105	160	182	150	28	33	56	64	50	50	
Fertilizer															
N	kg	125	150	258	280	147	152	350	99	104	82	85	63	38	
P	kg	40	41	105	110	20	23	125	89	63	50	23	38	13	
K	kg	10	9	35	32	15	16	0	0	0	18	23	13	5	
Chemicals															
Insecticides	l	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	
	kg	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	
Herbicides	l	2	2	2	3	1	1	6	0	0	0	5	2	0	
	kg	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Molluscides	l	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		5	0	0	
	kg	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Fungicides	l	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	
	kg	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Farm yard manure	kg	1300	1500	4500	500				408	0	835		1000	500	
Irrigation	m ³	NA	NA	5717	5417	9600	9530	12000	NA	NA	6200	8500	NA	NA	
Labour	day	70	78	187	205	59	66	16	169	152	155	17	96	69	
Animal labour	hr	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	220	0	24	48	
Yield	Kg	2491	2785	6925	7142	6846	6711	9500	5596	4625	3930	7036	3500	2700	
Straw	Kg	3737	4178	10388	10712	8558	8389	14250	8394	6938	2080	11258	5250	4050	
Water productivity	Kg/m ³	NA	NA	1.21	1.32	0.71	0.70	0.79	NA	NA	0.63	0.83	NA	NA	

NA = not available

Table 4 Total energy input (kWh) and output (kWh) for rice production under different irrigation system per hectare for the selected developing and developed countries.

Operation	Pakistan		China		Philippines		Australia	Indonesia		Nepal	USA	Myanmar	
	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Canal	Rainfed	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Rainfed
Land preparation (Tractor)	87	87	122	139	139	139	40	88	70	57	78	85	66
Diesel	1807	3436	2529	3830	2883	4670	722	1807	1445	1084	3604	1807	1445
Seed	184	196	416	428	652	741	612	116	133	230	259	204	204
Fertilizer	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N	2104	2525	4342	4712	2474	2558	5891	1664	1742	1385	1431	1052	631
P	123	127	323	339	62	71	385	274	193	154	71	116	39
K	19	17	65	60	28	29	0	0	0	34	43	23	9
Chemicals													
Insecticides	0	0	67	83	16	11	11	100	28	0	3	28	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Herbicides	100	120	140	167	40	40	400	0	0	0	334	100	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Molluscicides	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	126	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fungicides	0	0	22	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	72	0	0
Farm yard manure	91	105	315	35	0	0	0	29	0	58	0	70	35
Irrigation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Labour	302	337	807	886	257	284	69	730	654	670	71	415	298
Animal labour	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	308	0	34	67
Total energy inputs	4816	6950	9149	10710	6555	8547	8130	4812	4268	3980	6093	3933	2794
Yield	10163	11363	28254	29138	27932	27381	38760	22832	18870	16034	28707	14280	11016
Straw	12966	14496	36045	37172	29695	29109	49448	29127	24073	7218	39064	18218	14054
Total energy output	23129	25859	64299	66310	57626	56490	88208	51959	42943	23252	67771	32498	25070
Energy Ratio	5	4	7	6	9	7	11	11	10	6	11	8	9
Specific energy	1.93	2.50	1.32	1.50	0.96	1.27	0.86	0.86	0.92	1.01	0.87	1.12	1.03
Energy productivity	0.52	0.40	0.76	0.67	1.04	0.79	1.17	1.16	1.08	0.99	1.15	0.89	0.97

Table 5 Net returns, benefit cost analysis and water productivity economic per hectare for the selected developing and developed countries.

Operation	Pakistan		China		Philippines		Australia	Indonesia		Nepal	USA	Myanmar	
	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Tubewell	Canal	Canal	Rainfed	Irrigated	Unspecified	Tubewell	Rainfed
Land preparation + transplanting (\$)	35.35	40.53	36.60	37.92	55.76	59.38	23.51	12.50	0.00	3.66	20.00	15.60	16.80
Seed (\$)	2.77	2.78	22.80	22.80	48.88	54.92	30.00	8.99	11.94	7.65	28.70	14.00	12.00
Fertilizer (\$)	27.17	39.53	78.86	78.86	69.00	76.86	188.54	55.33	50.14	23.20	128.00	15.40	8.56
Farm yard manure (\$)	17.85	25.82	5.00	5.20	0.00	0.00	0.00	18.49	0.00	4.58	0.00	4.00	2.00
Chemicals (\$)	15.92	16.08	22.50	24.66	31.03	35.46	173.00	9.73	3.33	0.00	51.73	13.00	0.00
Irrigation (\$)	4.85	132.25	27.60	79.15	23.13	182.58	337.40	0.00	0.00	42.04	255.46	28.00	8.00
Harvesting (\$)	26.68	28.09	58.90	60.25	0.00	0.00	213.64	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	12.00	10.40
Threshing (\$)	17.79	18.73	40.20	42.30	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.72	0.00	5.20	5.20
Land rent (\$)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Labour (\$)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Hired labour (\$)	23.03	29.77	228.80	245.55	240.24	278.03	0.00	161.02	167.67	113.91	167.50	46.00	44.40
Family labour (\$)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	86.51	74.04	0.00	43.17	36.44	0.00	52.18	34.40	14.40
Animal labour (\$)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	14.07	0.00	22.27	0.00	6.00	16.80
Total labour use (\$)	23.03	29.77	0.00	0.00	326.75	352.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	136.18	219.68	0.00	0.00
Total paid-out costs (\$)	171.40	333.58	521.26	596.69	468.04	687.23	966.08	266.07	233.08	219.03	703.57	107.20	62.96
Total cost (\$)	171.40	333.58	521.26	596.69	554.55	761.27	966.08	309.23	269.53	219.03	703.57	107.20	62.96
Miscellaneous costs (\$)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	12.54	17.11	105.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gross return (\$)	374.20	437.87	967.68	997.00	1392.49	1394.23	2363.64	652.87	539.58	331.66	1365.00	196.00	140.00
Net return (\$)	202.8	104.3	446.4	371.0	837.9	633.0	1397.55	343.63	270.06	112.64	661.43	88.80	77.04
Benefit cost ratio	2.18	1.31	1.86	1.67	2.51	1.83	2.45	2.11	2.00	1.51	1.94	1.83	2.22
Water productivity Economics (\$/m ³)	NA	NA	0.17	0.18	0.15	0.15	0.20	NA	NA	0.1	0.16	NA	NA